

# Apprentice Linear Algebra, 6th day, 07/13/05

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## 6 Real Euclidean Spaces

**Definition 6.1.** If  $V$  is a real vector space, an *inner product* on  $V$  is:

$$(\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V)(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R})(\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R})((\lambda \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \lambda(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}))$$

$$(\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V)(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a})$$

$$(\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c} \in V)(\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})$$

$$(\forall \mathbf{a} \in V \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0})(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} > 0)$$

Note: We will frequently omit the  $\cdot$  from  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$  for convenience.

**Definition 6.2.** A *real Euclidean space* is a real vector space with an inner product.

**Exercise 6.3.** Show that if  $V$  is a real Euclidean space and  $\mathbf{a} \in V$ , then  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{0} = 0$ .

**Example 6.4.** In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos(\theta)$ , where  $\theta$  is the angle between the vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , is an inner product. Note that distributivity (the fourth property listed in 6.1) in this example is highly nontrivial.

**Example 6.5.** The standard dot product is an inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Example 6.6.** A density function,  $\mu : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , is function such that

$$(\forall x \in \mathbb{R})(\mu(x) \geq 0)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \mu(x) dx = 1$$

$$(\forall k \in \mathbf{N}) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{2k} \mu(x) dx < \infty \right).$$

Given a density function,  $\mu$ , we can define an inner product on  $\mathbb{R}[x]$  by

$$f \cdot g = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)g(x)\mu(x)dx.$$

- Hermite's density function is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$ .
- Chebychev's first density function is  $\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ .
- Chebychev's second density function is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}\sqrt{1-x^2}$ .

In what follows, we let  $V$  be a real Euclidean space.

**Definition 6.7.** For  $\mathbf{a} \in V$ , the *norm* of  $\mathbf{a}$  is

$$||\mathbf{a}|| = \sqrt{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}}.$$

Using the norm, we can define a distance on  $V$ .

**Definition 6.8.** For two vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V$ , the *distance* between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  is

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = ||(\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a})||.$$

**Definition 6.9.** Two vectors,  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V$ , are called *orthogonal*, written  $\mathbf{a} \perp \mathbf{b}$ , if

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0.$$

**Definition 6.10.** A set of vectors,  $\{\mathbf{a}_i\} \subset V$ , is called an *orthogonal system* of vectors if the  $\mathbf{a}_i$  are pairwise orthogonal; i.e.,

$$(\forall i, j)(\mathbf{a}_i \perp \mathbf{a}_j).$$

**Exercise 6.11.** Prove that an orthogonal system of vectors is linearly independent.

**Definition 6.12.** An *orthogonal family of polynomials* with respect to  $\mu$  is an orthogonal system in  $\mathbb{R}[x]$  with inner product induced by the density function  $\mu$ .

**Exercise 6.13.** In  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ , let  $f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots$  be an orthogonal family of polynomials with respect to a density function  $\mu$  such that  $\deg(f_i) = i$ . Show that the  $f_i$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ . Show furthermore that, for any density function, there is a unique such family.

**Exercise 6.14.** \* Show that, in the exercise above, all the roots of the  $f_i$  are real.

**Example 6.15.** The Hermite polynomials,  $H_n$ , are orthogonal with respect to the Hermite density function. The Chebyshev polynomials  $T_n$  are orthogonal with respect to the first Chebyshev density and  $U_n$  are orthogonal with respect to the second Chebyshev density.

The  $T_n$  and  $U_n$  are defined as functions of  $\cos$ ;

$$T_0 = U_0 = 1$$

$$T_n(\cos \theta) = \cos n\theta$$

$$U_n(\cos \theta) = \frac{\sin((n+1)\theta)}{\sin \theta}.$$

Using the identity  $\cos(2\theta) = 2\cos^2 \theta - 1$  we have

$$T_2(\cos \theta) = \cos(2\theta) = 2\cos^2 \theta - 1.$$

So as a function of  $x$

$$T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1.$$

Similarly, the identity  $\cos(3\theta) = 4\cos^3 \theta - 3\cos \theta$  yields

$$T_3(x) = 4x^3 - 3x.$$

Likewise, the identities

$$\sin(2\theta) = 2\sin \theta \cos \theta$$

$$\sin(3\theta) = 3\cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \sin^3 \theta = \sin \theta(4\cos^2 \theta - 1)$$

$$\sin(4\theta) = 4 \cos^3 \theta \sin \theta - 4 \cos \theta \sin^3 \theta = \sin \theta (8 \cos^3 \theta - 4 \cos \theta)$$

yield

$$U_1(x) = 2x$$

$$U_2(x) = 4x^2 - 1$$

$$U_3(x) = 8x^3 - 4x$$

**Exercise 6.16.** Verify that these families are orthogonal with respect to the respective density functions.

## 6.1 Orthogonal Transformations

We now return to an arbitrary real Euclidean space,  $V$ .

**Exercise 6.17.** Show that any finite dimensional real Euclidean space has an orthonormal basis

If  $\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n)$  is a basis for  $V$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , recall then the matrix of  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to  $\mathbf{e}$  is written  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathbf{e}}$ .

If  $\mathbf{e}$  is an orthonormal basis for  $V$ , then the inner product on  $V$  is related to the standard dot product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  via the basis  $\mathbf{e}$ .

**Theorem 6.18.** *If  $\mathbf{e}$  is an orthonormal basis for  $V$  and  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ , then*

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathbf{e}}^T [\mathbf{y}]_{\mathbf{e}}$$

*where the left hand inner product is that of  $V$  and the right hand inner product is the dot product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .*

**Definition 6.19.** An *orthogonal transformation* is a distance-preserving map  $\varphi : V \rightarrow V$ . That is,

$$(\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V)(\text{dist}(\varphi(\mathbf{a}), \varphi(\mathbf{b})) = \text{dist}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})).$$

**Exercise 6.20.** Check that any map  $\varphi : V \rightarrow V$  is an orthogonal transformation iff  $\varphi$  is norm-preserving; i.e.,

$$(\forall \mathbf{a} \in V)(\|\varphi(\mathbf{a})\| = \|\mathbf{a}\|).$$

**Claim 6.21.** *Any orthogonal transformation  $\varphi : V \rightarrow V$  preserves inner products.*

**Proof:** *For any  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  we have*

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot \varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \|\varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})$$

*since  $\varphi$  preserves norms.*

*But now using linearity of  $\varphi$  and distributivity of the inner product allows us to expand each side of the equation above and gives*

$$\|\varphi(\mathbf{x})\|^2 + \|\varphi(\mathbf{y})\|^2 + 2\varphi(\mathbf{x})\varphi(\mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 + 2\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}.$$

*Using again the fact that  $\varphi$  is norm-preserving and canceling like terms yields our desired result,*

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x})\varphi(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}.$$

### 6.1.1 Matrix of an Orthogonal Transformation

An orthonormal basis allows us to compute the inner product on  $V$  by using the standard dot product. We will see now that an orthonormal basis can also help us understand orthogonal transformations on  $V$ .

**Theorem 6.22.** *Given an orthonormal basis  $\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n)$  for  $V$  and a linear transformation  $\varphi : V \rightarrow V$ ,  $\varphi$  is an orthogonal transformation iff  $[\varphi]_{\mathbf{e}}^T [\varphi]_{\mathbf{e}} = I$ .*

**Proof:** *Note: throughout we will drop  $\mathbf{e}$  from our notation since the basis  $\mathbf{e}$  will remain fixed.*

*Recall that if  $A$  and  $B$  are matrices and  $Ax = Bx$  for all  $x \in V$ , then  $A = B$ . Now if  $\varphi$  is orthogonal, then for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  we have*

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x})\varphi(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}.$$

*So, in matrix form,*

$$[\varphi(\mathbf{x})]^T [\varphi(\mathbf{y})] = [\mathbf{x}]^T [\mathbf{y}].$$

*Recalling that  $[\varphi(\mathbf{x})] = [\varphi][\mathbf{x}]$  and  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$  allows us to simplify the above to*

$$[\mathbf{x}]^T [\varphi]^T [\varphi] [\mathbf{y}] = [\mathbf{x}]^T I [\mathbf{y}]$$

*and now since the equation above holds for all  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , we use the first fact above (twice) to conclude that*

$$[\varphi]^T [\varphi] = I.$$

**Exercise 6.23.** The proof given is one implication stated in the theorem. Prove the other.

**Exercise 6.24.** Prove that for matrices  $A$  and  $B$   $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ .

We now use the result of this theorem as a definition for matrices.

**Definition 6.25.** A matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  is an *orthogonal matrix* if

$$A^T A = I$$

Note that this is the same as saying that the columns of  $A$  form an orthonormal system.

**Exercise 6.26.** MAGIC #3: Prove that if the columns of  $A$  form an orthonormal system, so do the rows.

Hint: By definition  $A^T$  is a left inverse for  $A$ . By MAGIC #2 a right inverse for  $A$  exists. Show that the two must be equal.

**Corollary 6.27.** *The matrix  $A$  is orthogonal iff  $A$  is invertible and  $A^T = A^{-1}$ .*

**Claim 6.28.** *If  $A$  is orthogonal,  $\det(A) = \pm 1$ .*

**Proof:**

$$1 = \det(I) = \det(A^T A) = \det(A) \det(A^T) = (\det(A))^2.$$

**Exercise 6.29.** Show that matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\alpha & \sin 2\alpha \\ \sin 2\alpha & -\cos 2\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

are the only  $2 \times 2$  orthogonal matrices.

Hint: Recall that the eigenvalues of the first matrix are  $\cos \alpha \pm i \sin \alpha$ ; numbers of this form have unit norm. What are the eigenvalues of the second matrix? Answer this question without calculation.

**Exercise 6.30.** If  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  is an eigenvalue of an orthogonal matrix, then  $|\lambda| = 1$ .

**Corollary 6.31.** *If  $A$  is an orthogonal  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $|\operatorname{tr}(A)| \leq n$ .*

*Hint:  $\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$ , where the  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$ .*

Now let  $A$  be any matrix, and let  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$  be the rows of  $A$ , so

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

**Exercise 6.32. (Hadamard's inequality)** Show that for any matrix  $A$

$$|\det(A)| \leq \prod \|\mathbf{a}_i\|$$

and furthermore equality holds iff either one of the  $\mathbf{a}_i$  is zero or the  $\mathbf{a}_i$  are pairwise orthogonal.

Hint: Recall that  $\det(A)$  is the volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the rows of  $A$ .

**Exercise 6.33.** Prove the Pythagorean theorem in  $n$ -dimensional real Euclidean space: for orthogonal vectors  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_k$ ,  $\|\sum \mathbf{a}_i\|^2 = \sum \|\mathbf{a}_i\|^2$ .